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ABSTRACT

A study evaluated a faculty presentation skills training program for effectiveness in improving achievement and satisfaction of community college students. Nine female instructors and 352 students participated in the project. A quasi-experimental research design was used. Data from faculty and students were collected prior to and following the faculty training intervention. Pre- and post-training data were compared for significant differences. Through classroom observations, five quantitative voice qualities of instructors were measured: volume, pitch, rate or words per minute, length of pauses after asking questions or waiting time, and fillers per minute. The student achievement measurement was the students' final grade. A Likert scale questionnaire developed by the researcher measured adult students' satisfaction with the instructors' teaching of the course. Results indicated no relationship between instructors' age, years of experience, or level of education and their presentation skills. Overall, faculty training had no significant effect on achievement or satisfaction of learners 25 years and younger. Recommendations for future research were to study how adult age differences affect learning and what barriers prevent evaluation of faculty professional development programs. (Appendixes contain 77 references, definition of terms, and instruments.) (YLB)

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FACULTY PRESENTATION SKILLS TRAINING:

THE EFFECTS ON ADULT LEARNER SATISFACTION AND ACHIEVEMENT

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ABSTRACT

This study evaluated a faculty presentation skills training program for effectiveness in improving achievement and satisfaction of community college students. Nine female instructors and 352 students participated in the project. Results indicated that there was no relationship between the instructors' age, years of experience, or level of education and their presentation skills. Overall, faculty training had no significant effect on achievement or satisfaction of adult learners. There was a statistically significant improvement in satisfaction of learners 25 years and younger. Recommendations for future research include study of how adult age differences affect learning and what barriers prevent evaluation of faculty professional development programs.

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FACULTY PRESENTATION SKILLS TRAINING:

THE EFFECTS ON ADULT LEARNER SATISFACTION AND ACHIEVEMENT

Gifted instructors can capture and hold the attention of a roomful of students with differing ages, backgrounds, and knowledge. How do they do it? It starts with an awareness that attention is selective and fluctuating (Coats and Smidchens, 1966). Students of all ages choose to listen or not to listen. In order for learners to learn, they must attend to and process information. Even in the most learner-centered classrooms, instructors must use public speaking skills in delivering lectures, leading class discussions, asking questions, and directing small group activities. Many teachers who lack formal study in teaching methodology and communication, develop their instructional delivery skills through trial and error (Weiss, 1988).

Statement of the Problem

To be an effective instructor, it is not enough to just acquire expertise in a discipline. Faculty must have the ability to deliver that knowledge in a learner-friendly manner. Goulden (1991) wrote, "researchers have found that students whose teachers use dynamic, vocally skillful delivery are more successful at both comprehending and retaining information than are students whose teachers have weak presentation skills" (p. 1). Murray (1997) supported the importance of instructional delivery and wrote, "It may not be in a professor's job description to entertain students, it is part of the job to engage students" (p. 48).

Faculty professional development programs, such as presentation skills training, provide both an opportunity and challenge to learning organizations. The opportunity is for faculty to improve their instructional skills. The challenge is in determining the effectiveness of the program. Angelo (1994) and Maxwell and Kazlauskas (1992) noted the need to evaluate faculty development programs for measurable, long-term improvement in teaching and learning. Ultimately, instructors undertake professional development initiatives for the benefit of their students.

Therefore, this study measured the benefit of a faculty development program to the learner as well as the instructor. Could faculty's improved presentation skills lead to greater achievement and satisfaction for the adult learner? Donald Kirkpatrick's (1994) four-level evaluation model was used to determine the effectiveness of the faculty presentation skills training program:

1. Reaction - Learner satisfaction usually measured with evaluation sheets at the end of training sessions.
2. Learning - The change in knowledge, skills, or attitude achieved in a training session.
3. Behavior - The change in behavior or application of learning resulting from participation in a training program.
4. Results - The final results or benefit to the organization following participation in a training program.

This study took place over two consecutive 15-week semesters. Nine female community college faculty members and their 352 adult students were studied. The instructors were full-time and taught math, biology, chemistry, psychology, and speech.

Each instructor had at least five years of teaching experience and volunteered in participate in the study. The nine instructors were all white females between the ages of 40 and 59. One held a bachelor's degree, seven instructors held master's degrees, and one had an earned doctorate. They were all teaching the same course in the fall 1997 and spring 1998 semesters to similar groups of learners.

Review of Literature

This literature review led the investigator in executing this study. The review of literature was comprised of studies conducted in the areas of community college and higher education faculty development, training and development, teacher clarity, and gender and communications. Definitions of terms found in the literature review are summarized in Appendix A.

Community College Faculty Development

Formal and informal faculty development efforts have taken place in community colleges since their inception. In the 1990's, Alfano (1994) summarized the faculty development challenge as:

> channeling the pressures of budget constraints, mission confusion, student diversity, and changing faculty needs into growth opportunities in four areas: leadership, database management, diversified instruction and student services, and formalized faculty development (p. 1).

A survey of community colleges found 60% had established programs for professional development (Harnish & Wild, 1992). The challenges of administrators who planned faculty development activities included identifying ways to involve faculty,

understanding the role of rewards and incentives, and evaluating the impact of the development programs.

In 1993, Harnish and Wild focused specifically on peer mentoring as a means of faculty development. Even untenured faculty "or those distrustful of authority seem more inclined to develop relationships with peers" (p. 280). Peer mentoring teams worked to expand or update existing skills or knowledge and learn new skills, knowledge or instructional processes. Even the climate of the institution improved through renewed interest in instruction, increased dialogue among faculty, and long-term positive effects beyond the original project objectives.

Despite the availability of faculty development programs, Maxwell and Kazlauskas (1992) highlighted the low participation rate of faculty. The majority of community college teachers believed that although they did not need faculty development programs, their fellow teachers did. "Compounding the problem of program participation is the possibility that the methods most often used, particularly traditional methods such as workshops and newsletters, are frequently the least effective methods for instructional development" (p. 353).

In general, Maxwell and Kazlauskas believed that community college faculty responded most to development programs that addressed their desire to be content experts. They assumed superior knowledge led to superior teaching. Individualized programs also tended to be rated as highly effective among faculty.

Brawer (1990) wrote that faculty development was not "a high priority in community colleges" (p. 51). She concluded that faculty preferred courses and programs in their teaching field. They also wanted degrees and credits that enabled them to rise on

the salary schedule, and have time away from their teaching responsibilities. Paid sabbatical leaves and similar opportunities leading to higher degrees were faculty's preferred form of professional development.

Higher Education Faculty Development

A review of the literature in higher education also reflected a variety of faculty development programs implemented with varying amounts of effectiveness. One major reason many programs fail to make much impact on teaching and learning is that they involve too few faculty members. Many faculty members fail to recognize the need and potential usefulness of faculty development in their own teaching. Angelo (1994) found 92% of college and university teachers believed their own teaching was above average. As was found in community college settings, college and university faculty members see others in need of instructional development, but not themselves (Millis, 1994).

Kort (1990) explored faculty development from the viewpoint that faculty members are also adult learners. As adult learners, faculty participation in development programs should not be related to evaluation or promotion. Faculty development should be voluntary in order to protect the professional autonomy and control of faculty members. "Reward and punishment do not motivate faculty members to change" (p. 21). Kort noted that intrinsic rewards provide the strongest motivation for adults. According to Angelo (1994), money and recognition can motivate faculty, but generally do not prompt a faculty member to teach better.

When asked why they don't participate in faculty development activities, most faculty noted a lack of time. "Time is perceived as a crucial need; time to develop an

individual professional development plan and time to become rejuvenated enough to carry out that plan" (Sydow, 1994, p. 234). Angelo (1994) argued that the excuse of limited time might mean unclear priorities. Faculty responsibilities are often organized in this order: classes, office hours, additional activities (committee work, student activities, student advising and professional activities), and teaching overloads. One method for managing this lack of faculty time may be to schedule more days on the college calendar for delivering faculty developmental programs (Alfano, 1993).

Sorcinelli (1994) noted the pressure of these time constraints is especially stressful to new faculty. The difficulty in balancing new research and teaching responsibilities results in a faculty member fragmented by too many tasks and too little time to complete them.

However, when faculty did overcome the issue of time constraints, there did prove to be benefits from participating in faculty development initiatives. The data Heppner (1994) obtained from her research on the effects of a teaching practicum for prospective faculty indicated self-efficacy beliefs were greatly enhanced through the semester-long, structured experience.

Heppner and Johnston (1994) supported the use of peers for effective faculty development. Specifically, they described the effectiveness of their Faculty Peer Consultation Program. They recognized the useful resource of students for improving a faculty member's teaching. McKeachie wrote, "students know when they are learning" (Heppner & Johnston, p. 492). The course feedback provided from peer faculty who led discussions with students was more useful information than the closed-ended Likert responses used by the majority of professors on the general university evaluations.

While there are no real failures among faculty development strategies, there are some programs that are more successful than others. Evaluation of faculty development programs is difficult due to the limited follow-up on implemented strategies and the unclear criteria of the evaluation process. Most faculty development programs are intended to help faculty become more effective teachers and scholars. Measuring these outcomes as a result of faculty development requires a multi-dimensional approach. Useful information may be gained by site visits, questionnaires, and interviews from faculty, students, administrators, program coordinators, and expert site visitor assessments. If all forms of data agree that a program is successful or beneficial, more confidence is given to that program (Eble & McKeachie, 1985).

Instructional Development

In the area of instructional improvement, Weiss and others (1988) noted the use of public speaking skills for eliminating classroom management problems, such as poor note taking by students, poor performance on tests, and the poor rapport between students and faculty. Their suggestions included: orient the audience, gain attention of the audience through an interesting story, and summarize material to provide closure. Furthermore, they recommended lectures be organized using headlines and outlines to distinguish main points. Using expression, inflection, and visual aids as stimuli may reduce boredom of students.

Goulden (1991) noted some of the same suggestions as Weiss and others in her list of 32 recommendations for instructors who wish to improve their classroom delivery. She recommended two techniques leading to effective speaking for instructors: 1) the

elimination of distractors, and 2) the use of the voice and body to deliver the message so the presentation seems effortless. Speaker credibility depends on the students perception of the instructor as a competent, trustworthy, sincere, attractive, and dynamic. These attributes tend to be conveyed to an audience through nonverbal aspects of delivery, such as eye contact, mannerisms, or vocal pitch. "If there is a conflict between verbal and nonverbal messages, audiences tend to believe the nonverbal message and reject the verbal" (p. 3).

Cantor (1992) focused his instructional delivery comments on the adult learner. He wrote "research indicates that when high frequency or more common words are used, learning is faster and retention is longer" (p. 23). When teaching adults, he stressed the use of easy words and simple sentences in a natural, conversational manner.

Stahl (1994) wrote on the importance of using "wait-time" or "think-time" to improve instructional effectiveness. "Wait-time" was explained as a period of silence that followed teachers' questions and students' completed responses. In a typical classroom this rarely lasted more than 1.5 seconds. When students were given 3 or more seconds of undisturbed "wait-time," the length and correctness of their responses increased, the number of volunteered, appropriate answers by larger numbers of students greatly increased, and the scores of students on academic achievement tests tended to increase.

Andrews (1989) discussed the importance of planning and preparing for effective lectures. Lecturing combined with other teaching strategies improves instructional effectiveness. For example, "research has shown that typical student attention spans are limited to about 15-20 minutes" (p. 5). Pausing after a question showed "that the number

of student responses increased by 80%" (p. 5). Visual aids enhance the effectiveness of instruction by reinforcing the lecture content. Andrews encouraged planned, extemporaneous speaking with an awareness of fillers, such as "you know," "um," or "okay."

McKeachie (1986) noted that lecturing has value apart from its cognitive content. An effectively presented lecture may also motivate students. "Research on student ratings of teaching as well as on student learning indicates that the enthusiasm of the lecturer is an important factor in affecting student learning and motivation" (p. 71). Lectures may be improved by thinking about how students process lectures. During a lecture, "attention typically increased from the beginning of the lecture to 10 minutes into the lecture and decreased after that point" (p. 72). Lecture students recalled 70% of the material covered in the first ten minutes and only 20% of the material covered in the last ten minutes.

McKeachie recommended a variety of strategies for maintaining student attention during a lecture presentation. One way is to precede the important information with the phrase, "This will be on the test" (p. 73). Another way to re-earn student attention is to change the environment. "Variation in pitch, intensity, and pace of the lecture, and visual cues such as gestures, facial expression, movement to the blackboard, use of demonstrations or audiovisual aids - all of these recruit and maintain attention to the lecture" (p. 73). Furthermore, McKeachie noted there is "some evidence that students' comprehension is greater when the students can see the speaker's face and lips" (p. 73).

Gelb (1988) recommended five ways for building audience recall into a presentation. First, he suggested beginning powerfully by making contact both

emotionally and with the eyes. Second, build audience recall by repeating regularly. Third, emphasize key points in a humorous, outstanding, or unusual way. Fourth, involve the audience through discussion, exercises, questions, or activities. Fifth, end powerfully as recall is highest at the end of a presentation. Emphasize major points before closing the presentation.

Use of an individual consultant or mentor can combine both development of disciplinary and teaching skills. Maxwell and Kazlauskas' (1992) study supported their hypothesis that "the ideal type of consultant is a colleague in one's own department and who also can serve as a model in instructional methods" (p. 357). They also noted the importance of individualized programs. One technique, which may be used in consultations, is microteaching, which involves videotaping a specific unit of teaching, receiving feedback from the consultant, revising the unit, then teaching the unit again.

Another faculty peer technique utilizes the faculty consultant to provide classroom feedback. This involves a consulting colleague observing classes and working with students to generate feedback regarding the professor's teaching style and the course content. The consultant communicates the feedback to the faculty member (Heppner & Johnston, 1994).

Acheson (1981) described a technique that provides feedback on classroom communication called selective verbatim. It consisted of transcribing the classroom lecture verbatim according to categories. The technique was designed to present accurate, objective data with no value judgments. The selective verbatim technique can be transcribed from an audiotape of a class session. The analysis of the communication provides the instructor with an opportunity for self-evaluation.

Training and Development

Rothwell and Sredl (1992) noted the role of the instructor/facilitator consisted of "presenting information, directing structured learning experiences, and managing group discussion and group process" (p. 343). Presentation or platform skills are necessary for success in completing this goal. "The speaker must direct attention, structure information, and transmit information effectively" (p. 376).

Smith (1982a) conducted an experimental study with seniors majoring in secondary education. Half of the subjects participated in a one-week training program to identify and quantify verbal behaviors that inhibit teacher clarity. The other half of the students were the control group. Results of the study indicated that teachers can be trained to significantly improve their verbal behaviors related to teacher clarity.

Descriptive research cited in Smiths (1982b) study noted vagueness terms and mazes negatively affect student achievement. Teachers were shown to use an average of from three to five vagueness terms per minute of teacher talk and an average of four mazes per minute of teacher talk. Vagueness terms and mazes occur more frequently when the instructor does not have a command of the subject matter, when the instructor is hesitant about the sequence in which concepts should be presented, and when the instructor habitually uses phrases that do not develop substantive content (such as "you know").

In a business environment, Webb (1989) described a public speaking training program appropriate for business professionals. The discussion topics were delivery, organization, persuasion and audience analysis. Evaluation of the program indicated less

communication apprehension after training, increased public speaking knowledge, and a positive appraisal of the training.

Boyd (1995) described the need for individualized public speaking coaching for business professionals. This approach allowed executives to develop presentation skills according to their schedule and maximized their time investment. "Dramatic improvement occurs in a very short period of time using this customized coaching approach" (p. 58).

Business speakers can increase their effectiveness by adding visuals to their presentations. Trainers who use visuals are perceived as better prepared, more professional, more persuasive, more credible, and more interesting. Johnson (1989) noted research from the University of Minnesota has shown that retention is increased 10% when visuals are used. Visuals can also make a presentation 43% more persuasive.

Garmston (1996) supported the use of audiovisual aids to enhance learner retention. He noted the similarities between a stage performance and a presentation, and wrote the "best presenters seem to have a flair for the theatrical" (p. 56). He went on to suggest that a presenter deliver the first few lines of a presentation slowly and with highly crafted enunciation. Once an audience believes they can understand a speaker, the speaker can speak more rapidly and the audience will understand.

Communication

In the area of speech communication, Beebe (1974) quantified and supported the importance of direct eye contact to perceived speaker credibility. Speakers with good eye contact were consistently perceived as possessing more credibility. Beebe specifically

studied eye contact as an independent variable. The dependent variable of credibility included perceptions of qualification, dynamism, and honesty. "An increase in the amount of eye contact generated by a speaker in a public speaking situation will significantly enhance the listener's perception of the speaker's credibility" (p. 22).

Coats and Smidchens (1966) also studied speech delivery and concluded that audiences remember more from a dynamic lecture than from a static lecture. They made the assumptions that attention is selective, attention is fluctuating, and attention to some part of a statement is necessary if one is to remember the message. They described speaker dynamism as change or variety, animation, and power in the speaker. Dynamic speeches in their study were "delivered from memory, with much vocal inflection, gesturing, eye contact, and animation on the part of the speaker" (p. 190).

Hiller, Fisher, and Kaess (1969) studied how verbal characteristics affected classroom teaching. Their research showed a significant positive correlation between verbal fluency and effectiveness and a negative correlation between vagueness and effectiveness. Effectiveness was measured by a multiple choice comprehension test.

Burgoon, Pfau, and Birk (1990) examined speaker nonverbal behaviors and the relationship to persuasiveness and credibility. Credibility included the dimensions of competence, character, sociability, composure, and dynamism. Their results confirmed numerous associations between nonverbal behaviors and perception of credibility and persuasiveness. Greater perceived competence and composure were associated with greater vocal and facial pleasantness. Facial expressiveness contributed to competence perceptions. Greater sociability was associated with more kinesic/proxemic immediacy,

dominance, relaxation, and vocal pleasantness. Persuasiveness was also associated with frequent and longer eye contact, smiles, nodding, gestures, and moderate relaxation.

Sensenbaugh (1995) studied verbal and nonverbal communication behaviors in the college classroom. This included the kinds of behaviors instructors (many of whom were graduate teaching assistants) exhibit, and the students' reactions to and attitudes about those behaviors. Sensenbaugh noted that "teacher immediacy" in the classroom (verbal and nonverbal communication such as smiles, head nods, use of inclusive language, and eye contact) is perhaps the most salient research variable to emerge in instructional communication research in the past two decades. Increased learning resulted from an instructor's use of:

> immediate behaviors such as offering praise or feedback on students' work, showing a willingness and interest in talking with students, addressing students by their first names, and employing inclusive pronouns such as "our" class and what "we" must do. Nonverbal immediate behaviors such as displaying vocal expressiveness, smiling, relaxing body posture, and varied gestures and movements also enhanced student learning by increasing students' liking for the instructor primarily and subject matter secondarily (p. 2).

Sensenbaugh also noted that students beginning the semester with either low or moderate motivation to study had increased motivation to study after being exposed to a highly immediate instructor.

Furthermore, Sensenbaugh noted students perceived the following behaviors in their effective instructors: 1) organizational stability (answers questions clearly and concisely, explains guidelines, and points out what is important in each lesson), 2) instructional adaptability (shows interest in student opinions), and 3) interpersonal flexibility (does not put students down or interrupt them).

In additional studies on gender and teaching style, Sensenbaugh indicated between 60% and 80% of GTAs rated friendliness, "communicator image," "impression leaving," attentiveness, and "animated" more positively than other style variables. Students' attitudes about their GTAs differ depending on whether the GTA was male or female. Males used the "lecture method, a dominant and precise style, more than females, while females feel more committed to teaching and are more informal, friendly, and open towards students" (p. 3). Female GTAs were rated more heavily on their instructional adaptability and interpersonal inflexibility than were males, and females tended to rate instructors more on those same dimensions. Male instructors were rated more on their organizational stability.

In classroom listening behavior, Krapels' (1996) research found that the "primary listening barriers in the college classroom perceived by the students were: 1) emotions (worry, anger, etc.), 2) personal physiological characteristics (fatigue, headache, etc.) and 3) speaker traits (knowledge of subject, speaking voice, etc)" (p. 1).

Gender and Communication

In 1986, Deborah Tannen first drew attention to the gender differences in communication through her book, *You Just Don't Understand: Men and Women in Conversation.* Her research concluded that men and women have different conversational styles influenced by the part of the country they grew up in, their ethnic background, their age, class, and gender. Gender is only one of several factors that influences communication. Tannen also maintained that no one style of speaking is superior.

Sandler (1991) noted communication differences between men and women in higher education. She wrote of the chilly professional climate often experienced by women as faculty members in higher education. Even though the discriminatory treatment of women has improved over the past twenty years, there still remains career challenges unique to women. She noted that men's communication styles are often associated with professionalism and power. "In contrast, women's communication styles are often equated with powerlessness" (p. 11). "Masculine" styles of speaking and behavior include highly assertive speech, impersonal styles, competitive interchanges, and interruption of others. Furthermore, men demonstrated more physical gestures that express comfortableness, dominance, and control.

On the other hand, Sandler (1991) noted that women tended to demonstrate more a personal style with greater self-disclosure, inappropriate smiling, and gestures that express attentiveness or give encouragement. Women's communication styles have been less valued, which may lead others to perceive women as less knowledgeable and competent.

In a later publication, Sandler (1992) recommended specific career development strategies for female faculty. She cautioned women against "using a 'sweet' tone of voice when intending to sound firm" (p. 6). Linguists and communication specialists described women's speech as being less assertive and more deferential. Sandler noted

> Women typically use more qualifiers ("Perhaps there is a likelihood ..." and add tag questions such as "It's hot, isn't it?" Their voices may go up at the end of a sentence and their statements may begin with apologies (I'm probably wrong but ...") Men's speech, in contrast, is typically more definitive, strong, assertive, and often both competitive and combatitive in nature. Often the proposed solution for these speech differences is to help women learn to talk assertively, in the manner of

men. (p. 7).

There is a positive value to "feminine" speech patterns. In some situations, a less assertive style of speaking can foster collaboration with and encouragement to others. It may allow people to express their opinions without regard to the status of the speaker (Sandler, 1992).

In 1967, Mehrebian and Wiener published research that "indicated total feeling is communicated 7 percent verbally, 38 percent through tone of voice, and 55 percent through facial expression" (cited in Spangler, 1995, p. 411). Spangler noted other gender-specific differences in nonverbal communication. Women smiled more often than men and maintained eye contact regardless of the learner's sex. Females gestured gracefully from the elbow; men movements were precise and originated at the shoulder. Women used less space. Females were more accurate in decoding nonverbal cues from men.

Teacher Clarity/Instructional Clarity

Bush and others (1977) investigated instructional clarity in observable terms. Even though their subjects were ninth grade students, the method of research is valuable to adult educators and has implications for training of teachers. One hundred and ten low-inference behaviors used by the clear teachers were compiled by Cruickshank and Myers in 1975 and used in this study by Bush. Many of the behaviors identified were basic skills of public speaking, such as: pronounces words distinctly, speaks with expression, explains by telling a story, tells humorous stories when explaining, and explains something and then stops so students can think about it. The students rated their

most clear teachers as explaining concepts in an understandable manner, at an appropriate pace, and involving use of examples and illustrations in presenting material.

Land and Smith's (1979a) study provided greater specification of teacher behavior variables and the use of experimental design to study their effects on student achievement. The authors used a 2 (teacher vagueness versus no teacher vagueness) x 2 (teacher mazes versus no teacher mazes) x 2 (additional unexplained content versus no additional unexplained content) experimental design to study the joint effects of low inference clarity indicators. The vagueness lessons contained 7.5 vagueness terms per minute; the maze lessons contained 5.1 mazes per minute; the lessons with additional unexplained content contained references to 0.75 additional terms per minute. Students who viewed the lessons with no mazes and no vagueness terms earned higher achievement.

Land and Smith (1979b) supported earlier research with another experimental study in which students in a "clear lesson" study group achieved significantly more than students in the "unclear lesson" group. They recommended two approaches to reduce teacher vagueness and increase student achievement: 1) increase teacher knowledge of subject matter, and/or 2) use training procedures to directly reduce the number and occurrence of vagueness terms.

Snyder and others (1991) noted "instructional clarity to be the most important instructor variable influencing student achievement" (p. 2). Instructional clarity was described as a cluster of instructor behaviors that contain appropriate use of 1) keys (main ideas), 2) links (logically related keys), 3) framing (set the context), 4) focusing (center attention on keys), and 5) examples. Instructional clarity avoids vague terms and mazes

(false starts, halts in speech, or redundantly spoken words). Students presented with lessons containing positive instructional clarity achieved more than the control, especially in the areas of defining, identifying, and applying concepts. Achievement was negatively affected by unclear presentations, even when material was well structured.

Snyder and others (1993) expanded their earlier research on instructional clarity to discover that instructional clarity variables significantly improved student motivation and conceptual achievement. Focusing tended to be more important than links in student motivation; links affected the achievement of students more than focusing. Snyder and others noted that focusing "seems to be an extremely important skill to teach future instructors due to the fact that student motivation is one of the main complaints of teachers . . ." (p. 20).

Metcalf and Cruickshank (1991) studied whether 1) preservice teachers can be trained to be clearer in their instruction, 2) trained teachers produce greater student learning, and 3) trained teachers produce greater learner satisfaction. An experimental group received eight weeks of training in 17 behaviors that students believe make instruction clearer. Training produced significant improvements in teachers' clarity and in the ability to produce significantly more learning. However, no evidence was shown that clarity impacts significantly on teachers' ability to engender increased student satisfaction, or that increasing instructional clarity causes increased learner satisfaction.

Harris and Swick (1985) studied preservice teachers' training in verbal clarity skills. These skills included: 1) decrease usage of vagueness terms and mazes, 2) modify questioning frequency, 3) increase questioning clarity with fewer multiple utterance questions, and 4) extend teacher wait time. Harris and Swick noted an average of 5.1

mazes occurring per minute of teacher talk. Wait time is described as the amount of time that lapses after a teacher poses a question and before: 1) the teacher answers it him/herself, 2) the teacher repeats the question, 3) the teacher rephrases the question, 4) the teacher adds additional information to the questions, and 5) the teacher accepts an answer to the question from a student.

In the study conducted by Harris and Swick, introductory, intermediate, and advanced preservice teacher education students presented lessons at actual field sites. The teacher talk from audiotapes was transcribed verbatim. Trained coders independently analyzed all taped transcripts for frequency of vagueness terms, mazes, questions, wait times, and single and multiple utterance questions. Advanced students used mazes less frequently, asked fewer questions per minute, and allowed for longer wait time that demonstrated the value of training. However, the frequency of these behaviors was still found to exceed the number found in other studies to impede learning. Implications noted in this study were the need for training in these clarity variables which is systematic and substantiated by research.

Methodology

A quasi-experimental research design was used for this project. Data from faculty and students were collected prior to the faculty training intervention and following the faculty training. The pre-training and post-training data were compared for significant differences.

First, data were collected on the instructors. Through classroom observations, five quantitative voice qualities were measured: 1) volume, 2) pitch, 3) rate or words per

minute, 4) length of pauses after asking questions or waiting time, and 5) fillers per minute. This information was collected through audiotaped class sessions. These audiotapes were transcribed into a verbatim script for measurements on rate or words per minute, length of the pauses, and number of fillers per minute. A sound technician analyzed the audiotapes with SoundEdit 16 (See Appendix B) software for measurements on volume and pitch for each instructor. Table 1 operationalized information regarding the voice qualities.

Table 1: Quantitative Analysis of Voice Data

VOICE QUALITY	EXPLANATION	METHOD OF MEASUREMENT	THEORISTS REFERENCED
1. Volume	Loudness or softness of voice; amplitude	SoundEdit 16 graph analysis	Goulden, 1991 Weiss, 1988
2. Vocal Pitch	Variety or range in voice inflection; frequency	SoundEdit 16 graph analysis	Goulden, 1991 Weiss, 1988 Bush & others, 1977 Coats & Smidchens, 1966
3. Words per minute	Number of words spoken per minute; average 125 - 150 words per minute	Transcript and audiotape analysis	Goulden, 1991 Gundersen & Hopper, 1976
4. Length of pauses or Wait time	Amount of time that lapses after teacher-posed questions enhances number and quality of learner responses; ideal length is 3 seconds	Audiotape analysis	Stahl, 1994 Harris and Swick, 1985
5. Number of fillers	Hesitators such as "um," "uh," "you know," or "okay"; average 3 - 5 per minute	Audiotape analysis	Andrews, 1989; Land and Smith, 1979

The students' achievement and satisfaction with the instructor's teaching of the course were also measured. The achievement measurement was the students' final grade, which consisted of exams, term papers, student presentations, book reports, class participation, and/or other miscellaneous assignments. A Likert scale questionnaire developed by the researcher measured the adult students' satisfaction with the instructors'

teaching of the course. The Satisfaction with Teaching Survey (Appendix C) items measured only issues addressed in the faculty training. The reliability of the survey was substantiated with a Crombach's alpha rating of .87.

The instructor presentation skills training took place between the two semesters and consisted of one four-hour session. Each instructor attended an individualized coaching session which focused on her own tapes and data. The emphasis of the training was on volume, pitch, rate or number of words per minute, pause or wait time, and number of fillers per minute. Following the training, each instructor completed a Training Effectiveness Evaluation. See Appendix D.

After the faculty presentation skills training, data were collected again in the spring semester. Each instructor's classes were audiotaped for the same measurements on volume, pitch, rate, length of pauses, and number of fillers. Student achievement and satisfaction were also measured by the same standards. The adult students in the class were different, but similar in age, race, gender, enrollment status, and grade point average.

Kirkpatrick's (1994) four-level evaluation model, the seminal model for determining training effectiveness, guided this study. Table 2 described how Kirkpatrick's model was applied to this study. The goal was to achieve level four evaluation results. Before student achievement and satisfaction in fall and spring were compared, there had to be an improvement in instructor presentation skills as a result of the training program. Two-tailed t-tests were used to determine if the improvements were statistically significant.

Table 2: Application of Kirkpatrick's Evaluation Model

LEVEL	EXPLANATION	INDICATORS
1 Reaction	Learner satisfaction	Workshop evaluation form
2 Learning	Change in knowledge, skills, or attitude	Workshop assessment techniques Informal evaluation of performance through learning activities and exercises
3 Behavior	Change in behavior or application of learning; transfer of training	Pre-training and post-training voice quality data collected through class observations
4 Results	Final results or benefits to the organization	Pre-training and post-training achievement and satisfaction data from learners

Results

According to Kirkpatrick, the first step in determining the effectiveness of the faculty presentation skills training was measuring the instructors' satisfaction with the training program. Instructor reaction to the training was positive. Their satisfaction rated 4.68 on a 5-point Likert scale. Kirkpatrick (1994) noted that a positive reaction to training by the participants was more likely to result in learning.

Level two evaluation, learning, involved measuring an improvement in knowledge and skills. In this study, the pretraining assessment was data from the fall semester audiotaped class sessions. The performance standards identified for each speaking variable were used in the training session to measure an improvement in faculty skills. After the instructor and trainer reviewed the transcript and tape for a class session, she repeated the presentation applying the newly acquired skills. Depending on each instructor, these skills were greater volume, more variety in pitch, slow rate of speaking,

fewer fillers, and/or longer pauses after asking questions or when changing topics. If necessary, the exercise was repeated until the instructor reached a satisfactory level of performance. Kirkpatrick wrote "without learning, no change in behavior will occur" (p. 51).

Kirkpatrick's (1994) level three evaluation, a change in behavior, referred to a transfer of training from the training workshop to the classroom. In this case, transfer of training was measured by quantifying the five speaking qualities before and after the training. Table 3 summarized the instructor data collected in the fall and spring semesters.

Three was the optimal rating for volume, pitch, and pause. One was the optimal rating for fillers. Rate was simply the average number of words per minute. Instructors had varying degrees of pre-training skills which allowed for varying degrees of improvement.

Table 3: Instructor Transfer of Training: Data for Speaking Variables Before and After Training (n=9)

	INSTR 1		INSTR2		INSTR3		INSTR4		INSTR5	
VARIABLE	F	S	F	S	F	S	F	S	F	S
Volume	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	2
Pitch	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Rate	154	175	121	148	164	169	160	154	208	189
Filler	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	1
Pause	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3

	INSTR6		INSTR7		INSTR8		INSTR9	
VARIABLE	F	S	F	S	F	S	F	S
Volume	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3
Pitch	1	1	1	2	3	3	3	3
Rate	145	147	172	169	164	169	160	154
Filler	3	3	1	1	1	1	2	1
Pause	3	3	2	3	2	3	2	2

A review of the instructor measurements or ratings showed there was no relationship between the instructors' age, level of education, or years of experience and their speaking ratings. When comparing the instructors' pre-training and post-training data, there was a tendency for them to improve in two voice qualities. First, there tended to be an increase in the length of pauses or wait time after teacher-initiated questions. Second, there was a decrease in the number of fillers spoken per minute. Awareness of these qualities seemed to lead to more effective presentation skills. Volume, pitch, and the number of words spoken per minute seemed to be harder speaking qualities to change and did not reflect a statistically significant improvement. The instructors tended to improve for a short time, then revert to their comfort level. In other words, an instructor

may have spoken louder for a period of time, but generally returned to her natural or comfortable speaking tone.

In level four evaluation, the benefits of training were measured for students. When overall student measurements were compared between the fall 1997 and spring 1998 semesters, there was no significant difference in student achievement or student satisfaction. However, when satisfaction scores between fall and spring semesters were broken down by demographic variables, spring semester students 25 years and younger had significantly higher satisfaction scores than comparable students in the fall ($p < .05$). The difference in satisfaction scores between the fall and spring for students with a grade point average of 3.4 – 4.0 showed a tendency to be significant ($p < .10$). Table 4 reflected the comparison of student satisfaction scores by age, race, gender, enrollment status, and grade point average.

Table 4: Comparison of Satisfaction Scores Between Fall and Spring Semesters by Demographic Variables: Independent Sample t-Tests

	FALL		SPRING			
DEMOGRAPGIC VARIABLE	MEAN(n)	STD. DEV.	MEAN(n)	STD. DEV.	Df	T
AGE						
Less than 26	4.4 (87)	0.5	4.5 (97)	0.5	182	-1.99*
26 – 50	4.7 (38)	0.4	4.6 (28)	0.5	64	0.75
51 and over	4.9 (1)	-	4.2 (2)	0.4	-	-
RACE						
Non-white	4.4 (25)	0.4	4.4 (13)	0.6	36	-0.11
White	4.5 (99)	0.5	4.6 (112)	0.5	209	-0.96
GENDER						
Male	4.4 (50)	0.5	4.5 (41)	0.5	89	-0.40
Female	4.5 (77)	0.4	4.6 (85)	0.5	160	-0.87
ENROLLMENT STATUS						
Full-time	4.5 (91)	0.5	4.6 (104)	0.5	193	-1.23
Part-time	4.4 (22)	0.5	4.5 (22)	0.6	55	0.25
GPA						
3.4 – 4.0	4.6 (46)	0.4	4.7 (56)	0.4	100	-1.66+
2.7 – 3.3	4.4 (53)	0.5	4.5 (46)	0.5	97	-0.27
2.0 – 2.6	4.4 (18)	0.5	4.4 (16)	0.4	32	0.33

+ $p<.10$
* $p<.05$

Discussion

The results of this study indicated that presentation skills training had no overall significant effect on the achievement or satisfaction of students. However, when the student satisfaction data were examined by demographic variables (age, gender, race, grade point average, and enrollment status), there was a statistically significant improvement in student satisfaction for learners 25 years old and younger.

Implications for Adult Education

It may be of value to adult educators to note that younger adult learners have different needs than older adult learners (Brown, 1997). Increased satisfaction after the instructor presentation skills training among young adults supported the conclusions of Brown. She wrote about one group of young adults given the media-generated label of Generation Xers. They were born between 1961 and 1981. Their style of living and learning differs from earlier generations. Brown identified some of the characteristics and learning strategies for these learners. She wrote, "they grew up with 'fast' food, 'remote control' entertainment, and 'quick response' devices such as automatic teller machines and microwave ovens, all of which provided instant gratification" (p. 1). Generation Xers tend to be independent problem solvers and self-starters who don't want to be controlled. They are technologically literate, which has conditioned them to crave stimulation and expect immediate answers. The ideal presentation is meaningful context delivered in an easy-to-process format.

The term *adult learner* covers a wide variety of ages and education activities. Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) defined adult education as participation in systematic learning activities for the purpose of acquiring new skills, knowledge or attitudes by persons who have assumed adult roles in society. In 1969, adult education participants were defined as "persons beyond compulsory school age (17 and over) who are not enrolled full-time in a regular school or college program but who are engaged in one or more activities or organized instruction" (NCES, 1974, p. 2). Merriam and Cafferella (1991) noted that sometimes the minimum age of adults is established at 17, sometimes it

is 18, sometimes it is 21, and still other times it is 25. The maximum age is set at 60 (p. 71).

This broad range in ages may be problematic for the field of adult education. Merriam and Caffarella (1991) wrote "what has become problematic is separating facts, ideas, and theories about adult development from the popularized and fictionalized versions of research findings and then linking those findings to learning is adulthood" (p. 96). They examined adult development from three major perspectives: physical aging, psychological changes, and sociocultural factors. Young adulthood is recognized as the period of optimal health, physical strength, and endurance. In their 40s, adults tend to reach their physiological turning point.

Merriam and Caffarella wrote "although as adults we experience many major changes in our physical beings as we grow older, the effect of these changes on our capacity to learn is still largely unknown" (p. 99). Deterioration in the ability to see and hear can create problems for the learning process. There are fewer cells in the brain as one grows older, but researchers have not uncovered the impact this change has on learning.

One study that examined learning differences in younger and older adults was by Moore and Zabrucky (1995). They investigated younger and older adults' reading performance. The mean age of younger adults was 22.93 and the mean age for the older adults was 71.35. Both groups of adults read from a computer screen and printed text prior to being assessed for differences in comprehension and memory. The younger adults spent less time reading the texts and recalled more information from texts than did the older adults. The on-line presentation of text resulted in superior comprehension and

recall for both younger and older adults. This superior comprehension is somewhat surprising since older adults generally have more computer anxiety than younger adults.

Implications for Program Planning

This project contributes a four-level evaluation model (1) reaction, 2) learning, 3) behavior, and 4) results) for assessing the effectiveness of professional development programs in higher education. This type of evaluation may be missing from the research literature because evaluation at levels 3 and 4 is generally more expensive and time-consuming than levels 1 and 2. Garavaglia (1993) wrote, "the value of the information gathered at each level increases as the evaluation moves from measuring reaction to measuring results" (p. 63).

The methods of evaluating training in this study are not the only options available to program planners and administrators. Other methods for measuring changed behavior include obtaining reports from supervisors, completing supervisor and trainee surveys and questionnaires, developing action plans, conducting supervisor and trainee interviews, and observing on-the-job situations (Kirkpatrick, 1994; Garavaglia, 1993). The amount of time and effort invested in program evaluation depends on the cost of the program, the importance of the results, and the number of times the training will be repeated.

Several of the strategies that Mbawo (1995) suggested to enhance transfer of training were incorporated into this training program. For example, all instructors in this study were volunteers. Mbawo wrote "it is impossible to force people to learn or to transfer learning" (p. 7.36). Goal setting and assessment was a particularly successful

transfer of training strategy. During the training, instructors identified speaking goals they wished to achieve in the spring semester. The goals focused on improving one or two variables which were measured in the fall. Four instructors wished to add more variety to their pitch, four instructors wished to increase the length of their pauses, and three instructors wished to slow down their rate of speaking. Six of the nine instructors (66%) changed the behavior they identified as their goal during the training workshop.

Implications for Professional Development

Interestingly, the demographic characteristics of the instructors who volunteered for this study were very similar to those who most often participate in business training and development and adult education programs. The nine instructors in this study were all white females between the ages of 40 to 59. One instructor held a bachelor's degree, seven instructors held master's degrees, and one had earned a doctorate.

According to the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, the typical worker to receive training in 1995 was between the ages of 25 and 54, male, white, full-time, and had earned a bachelor's degree or higher. According to the 1997 National Center for Education Statistics, the profile of the typical adult learner was between the ages of 30 and 49 years old, female, white, and possessed at least a high school diploma. Adult education participation rates increase with each level of educational attainment. The instructors who volunteered to participate in this study are from a culture which values training and education. They are the employees who are most willing to sacrifice the time, consider new options, learn new techniques, and change their behaviors.

It is troubling that the participants in the training are typically white, well-educated, middle age, and full-time workers. Minorities are under-represented among higher education faculty. The 1998 Chronicle for Higher Education Almanac provided this racial and ethnic group breakdown for full-time faculty: .4% are American Indian, 5% are Asian, 4.8% are black, 2.3% are Hispanic, and 85% are white. Adult education administrators, as well as human resource development directors, need to continue efforts to "level the playing field" in hiring as well as training. Training and development initiatives should be utilized by all faculty members. Mentoring programs, career development plans, and performance appraisals can encourage minority and part-time faculty members to take advantage of training programs.

Gunter (1992) concluded in her study that institutions with the highest percentages of ethnic minority populations and highest percentages of developmental students allocated the least percentages of their instructional budget to faculty development. This information was gathered from a survey instrument sent to community colleges in California, Florida, Texas, and Illinois. Her findings were not statistically significant, but do offer hope for improved student performance through faculty development programs. She found institutional grade point averages, graduation rates, and average student grade point averages the first semester after the students transferred showed improvement as the percentage of instructional budget spent for faculty development increased.

Other implications from this study for adult educators deal with low participation rates in higher education faculty development. "Lack of time" was the most common reason faculty gave for not participating in faculty development programs (Angelo, 1994,

Sydow, 1994). The Faculty Policy Review Report by the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU) (1998) stated that faculty members are responsible for pursuing short- and long-term professional development plans that are within the mission of the institution.

In a study of how full-time faculty used their time, the National Center for Education Statistics found that in 1992 faculty devoted 54.4% of their time to teaching, 17.6% of their time to research, 13.1% of their time to administration, and 4.6% of their time to professional growth. Professional development needs to be given a higher priority. Professional development may be especially important to aging faculty. By 2000, 50% of full-time faculty will be over 55, and 68% will be over 50. Bland and Bergquist (1997) wrote " just when many universities and colleges in America are making major shifts in missions and their organizational structures, faculty members who are expected to implement these bold new visions will be out signing up for their senior citizen cards" (p. 1).

The instructors in this study were intrinsically motivated to participate in the faculty development program only by their own desires to become more effective in their teaching. Administrators can support their faculty in training and development initiatives by offering extrinsic rewards, such as monetary awards, release time, or teaching awards (Meacham and Ludwig, 1997). The 1998 Faculty Policy Review Report (AASCU) stated "while the need for faculty development has become clearer, appropriate reward structures that link incentives to the expanding expectations are not yet in place" (p. 1).

As this study contributes a four-level evaluation for a professional development program, the next step in research is to determine why more thorough evaluations are not

being conducted. The barriers to assessment of faculty development programs may be time, knowledge, money, or other reasons. The next step in future research is to determine why more thorough evaluations are not being conducted in education settings. In these times of budget and staff constraints, continued existence of faculty development programs may depend on the justification of their effectiveness (Paterno, 1994).

There also may be implications from this study for educators in how we train our instructors. A review of the instructors' speaking scores prior to the training revealed no relationship between an instructor's score and her level of education, her age, or her number of years of teaching experience. In preservice teachers, Metcalf and Cruickshank (1991) noted that they could be trained to improve their instruction. This study supported that experienced teachers may be trained to improve their presentation skills.

Eighty-eight percent (88%) of the female faculty members who participated in the training stated their presentation style had developed through trial and error. Presentation skills training may help reduce the tendency of instructors to develop their presentation styles through trial and error. Presentation skills training may "shorten the learning curve" and help junior instructors be more effective in shorter periods of time.

Study Limitations

This study has several limitations. The findings can only be generalized to the female faculty who participated in this study in the community college setting. These participants were volunteers; therefore, the results do not address the feasibility of

improving presentation skills in all instructors. Also, long-term effects of the presentation skills training were not studied.

The adult learner populations in the fall 1997 and spring 1998 courses were similar, but not identical in makeup. This study investigated only the effects of the instructor's presentation skills on student learning and satisfaction. Many other instructor, student, or organizational factors could influence the results.

Future Research

Based on the implications recognized in this study, the following recommendations are made for further research:

1. Replications of the study with a larger number of instructors, male instructors, a longer time period, and group rather than individual faculty training sessions.
2. Further research on age differences in adult learning.
3. Further investigation into the barriers which prevent assessment of the effectiveness of faculty training and development initiatives.

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Appendix A

DEFINITION OF TERMS

A number of theoretical terms and concepts are used in the literature related to this study. The definitions are operationalized as follows:

Achievement - Cognitive gain.

Focusing - Centering attention on keys (Synder et al., 1991, p. 3).

Framing - Setting the context (Synder et al., 1991, p. 3).

High inference behaviors - General definitions open to subjectivity (Land, 1980, p. 48).

Keys - Main ideas or core elements of a statement (Synder et al., 1991, p.3).

Links - Logically or structurally related keys (Synder et al., 1991, p. 3).

Low inference behaviors - Observable, specific definitions (Land, 1980, p. 48).

Mazes - False starts, halts in speech, redundancies, or tangles of words; any unit of discourse that does not make semantic sense (Land & Smith, 1979, p. 55).

Microteaching - Videotaping a specific unit of teaching, receiving feedback from the help of a consultant, revising the unit, then teaching the unit again (Maxwell & Kazlauskas, 1992).

Presentation skills - Public speaking skills.

Teacher clarity - Those teacher behaviors which relate to and facilitate the communication to students in a manner that enables students to learn (understand and synthesis) the subject matter. The teacher behaviors include such acts as explaining instructional content, use of examples, emphasizing important aspects of the content, deliberate pacing of the content, frequent repetition, and an active attempt to assess

student understanding and synthesis of content (Hines, Cruickshank, & Kennedy, 1981, pp. 87-88); being clear and easy to understand (Bush and others, 1977, p. 53).

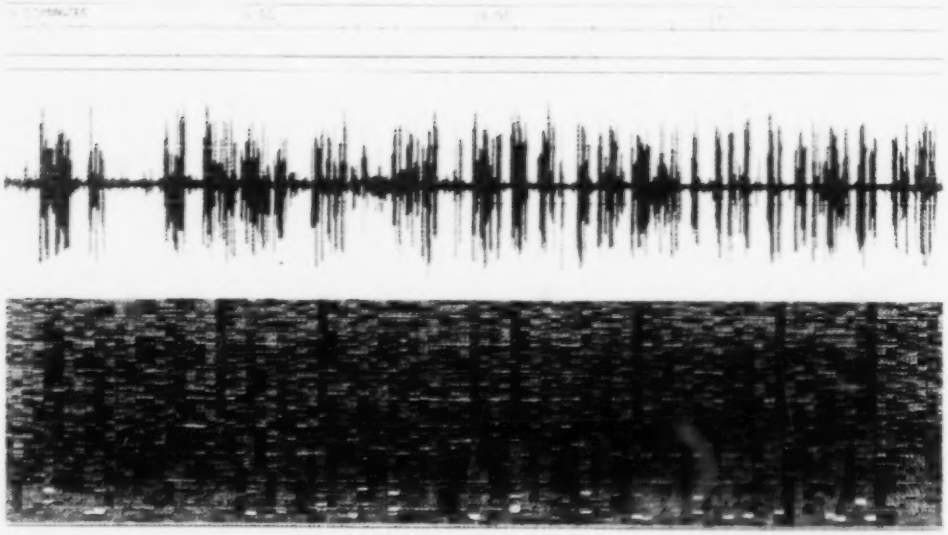
Transfer of training – The effective and continuing application, by trainees to their jobs, of the knowledge and skills gained in training (Broad & Newstrom, 1992).

Triangulation – Use of multiple methods and data sources; provides a rich and complex picture of the studied phenomenon by producing different understandings of it (Hativa, 1995, p. 383).

Vagueness terms – A psychological construct which refers to the state of mind of a performer who does not sufficiently command the facts or the understanding required for maximally effective communication (Hiller, Fisher, & Kaess, 1969, p. 670). Hiller et al. classified vagueness into: 1) ambiguous designation (e.g., somewhere), 2) negated intensifiers (e.g., not very), 3) approximation (e.g., pretty much), 4) bluffing and recovery (e.g., as you all know), 5) error admission (e.g., may be), 6) indeterminate quantification (e.g., a bunch), 7) multiplicity (e.g., kinds), 8) possibility (chances are), and 9) probability (e.g., often) (p. 665).

Appendix B

SOUNDEDIT 16 PRINT-OUT



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Appendix C

SATISFACTION WITH TEACHING INVENTORY

Section I - Satisfaction with Teaching
Please circle your level of satisfaction with each of the following aspects of your instructor's teaching or presentation style. Choose one of the five alternatives:

VS	Very Satisfied
S	Satisfied
N	Neutral, Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied
D	Dissatisfied
VD	Very Dissatisfied

VS	S	N	D	VD	1. Instructor teaches at a pace that is not too slow
VS	S	N	D	VD	2. Instructor teaches at a pace that is not too fast
VS	S	N	D	VD	3. Instructor's voice sounds confident
VS	S	N	D	VD	4. Instructor pauses before changing topics
VS	S	N	D	VD	5. Instructor demonstrates enthusiasm for the topic
VS	S	N	D	VD	6. Instructor speaks in a volume which is easy to hear
VS	S	N	D	VD	7. Instructor speaks clearly
VS	S	N	D	VD	8. Instructor uses vocal variety to keep students attention
VS	S	N	D	VD	9. Instructor asks questions then pauses at allow students time to think
VS	S	N	D	VD	10. Instructor stresses difficult points
VS	S	N	D	VD	11. Instructor explains a topic then stops so students can think

VS	S	N	D	VD	12. Instructor's voice sounds natural
VS	S	N	D	VD	13. Instructor's speech is free of verbal distractions (such as you know, okay, well, or like)
VS	S	N	D	VD	14. Instructor speaks in a conversational tone
VS	S	N	D	VD	15. Instructor teaches at a pace appropriate for the topic
VS	S	N	D	VD	16. Instructor speaks at a slower pace to explain difficult information
VS	S	N	D	VD	17. Instructor uses a raised voice pitch at the end of questions
VS	S	N	D	VD	18. Instructor pronounces words clearly
VS	S	N	D	VD	19. Instructor is easy to understand
VS	S	N	D	VD	20. Instructor speaks smoothly without hesitaters or fillers (such as umm or ahhh)

Section II - Background Information
Please mark (X) the appropriate blank. The information you supply on this questionnaire will be kept completely confidential. However, if any item requests information that you do not wish to provide, please feel free to omit it.

1. Age:
   ___ 18 or under
   ___ 19-25
   ___ 26-35
   ___ 36-50
   ___ 51-65
   ___ 66 or over

2. Racial/Ethnic Group:
   ___ African-American
   ___ Native American (Indian, Alaskan, Hawaiian)
   ___ Caucasian or White
   ___ Mexican-American, Mexican Origin
   ___ Asian American, Oriental, Pacific Islander
   ___ Other

3. Gender
   ___ Male
   ___ Female

4. Enrollment Status
   ___ Full-time
   ___ Part-time

5. Grade Point Average
   _____ 3.4 – 4.0
   _____ 2.7 – 3.3
   _____ 2.0 – 2.6
   _____ 1.0 – 1.9
   _____ Below 1.0

Appendix D

TRAINING EFFECTIVENESS EVALUATION

Part I – Evaluation of Training Effectiveness
Please circle your response to each statement. Choose one of the five alternatives:

SA	Strongly Agree
A	Agree
N	Neutral, Neither Agree or Disagree
D	Dissatisfied
SD	Strongly Dissatisfied

1.	The material covered in the program was relevant to my job.	SA	A	N	D	SD
2.	The material was presented in an interesting way.	SA	A	N	D	SD
3.	The trainer was an effective communicator.	SA	A	N	D	SD
4.	The trainer was well prepared.	SA	A	N	D	SD
5.	The audio visual aids were effective.	SA	A	N	D	SD
6.	The manual was helpful to me in understanding the program content.	SA	A	N	D	SD
7.	The manual will be helpful to me in the future.	SA	A	N	D	SD
8.	The facilities were suitable.	SA	A	N	D	SD
9.	The workshop time was convenient to my schedule.	SA	A	N	D	SD
10.	The material presented was individualized to meet my needs.	SA	A	N	D	SD

11.	The individualized content added to the effectiveness of the workshop.	SA	A	N	D	SD
12.	The material presented was organized effectively.	SA	A	N	D	SD
13.	The material was delivered in an effective manner.	SA	A	N	D	SD
14.	The material presented was supported by research in the field of education and communication.	SA	A	N	D	SD
15.	Activities were appropriate to the topic.	SA	A	N	D	SD
16.	The material held my interest.	SA	A	N	D	SD
17.	The material will help me be a more effective instructor.	SA	A	N	D	SD
18.	The training format allowed me at ask questions.	SA	A	N	D	SD
19.	The workshop added to my confidence in delivering presentations.	SA	A	N	D	SD
20.	The material presented motivated me to change my behavior.	SA	A	N	D	SD

Part II – Background Information
Please check the appropriate blank. The information you supply on this questionnaire will be completely confidential. However, if any item requests information you do not wish to provide, please feel free to omit it.

1. Age
   _____ 30-39
   _____ 40-49
   _____ 50-59
   _____ 60-69

2. Racial/Ethnic Group:
   _____ African American
   _____ Native American
   _____ Caucasian or White

3. Years of teaching experience:
   _____ 5-10 years
   _____ 12-15 years
   _____ 16-20 years
   _____ 21-25 years
   _____ 26-30 years
   _____ 31 or more years

4. Highest level of degree completed:
   _____ Bachelors
   _____ Masters
   _____ Doctorate